

# SOLUTIONS TO SELECTED HW EXERCISES (HW5) (1)

1.5.4 (a) Show that  $(a, b) \sim \mathbb{R}$  for any interval  $(a, b)$ .

Pf: As shown in class (see also Practice MT 2, #4)

there is a bijection

$$f: (-1, 1) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

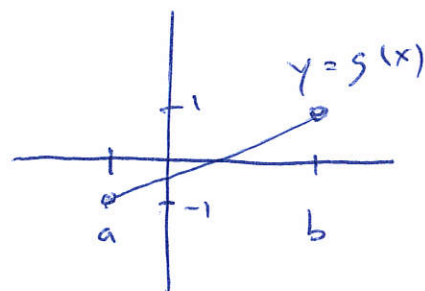
[we can take either  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 - 1}$ , or  $f(x) = \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x\right)$ ;

there are many other examples of such a bijection].

We now want to find a bijection

$$g: (a, b) \longrightarrow (-1, 1).$$

$$g(x) := -1 + \frac{2}{b-a}(x-a)$$



(Since  $g^{-1}(x) = a + \frac{b-a}{2}(x+1)$ , we see that  $g$  is a bijection.)

Finally, composing these functions, we obtain a

bijection  $h = f \circ g: (a, b) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

(2)

Concretely,

$$h(x) = \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \left(-1 + \frac{2}{b-a}(x-a)\right)\right)$$

is a bijection from  $(a, b)$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

---

(b) Show that an unbounded interval like  $(a, \infty) = \{x : x > a\}$  has the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{R}$  as well.

Soln: Consider the function

$$f: (a, \infty) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{given by}$$

$$f(x) := \log_e(x-a) = \ln(x-a)$$

Since the function  $g: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow (a, \infty)$  given by

$$g(x) = e^x + a$$

satisfies

$$f(g(x)) = \ln((e^x + a) - a) = \ln(e^x) = x \quad \text{and}$$

$$g(f(x)) = e^{\ln(x-a)} + a = (x-a) + a = x,$$

We see that, since  $f$  is invertible, it

is a bijection.

(3)

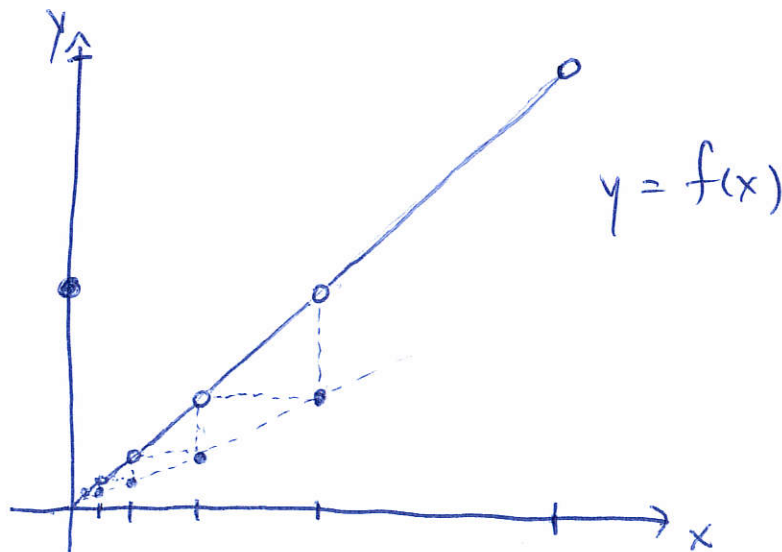
(c) Using open intervals makes it more convenient to produce the required 1-1, onto functions, but it is not really necessary. Show that  $[0,1) \sim (0,1)$  by exhibiting a 1-1 onto function between the two sets.

Soln. Define the function  $f: [0,1) \rightarrow (0,1)$

by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2^n}, n \in \mathbb{N} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \notin \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots\} \end{cases}$$

Picture



Restricted to the subset

(4)

$$\left\{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \dots\right\} =: S$$

$f$  does a "shift":

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \dots\} \\ \searrow \quad \searrow \quad \searrow \quad \searrow \quad \searrow \quad \searrow \\ \{0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{32}, \dots\}, \end{array}$$

while on the complement of the set  $S$

$$[0,1) \setminus S \subseteq (0,1), \quad f \text{ just acts}$$

like the identity function.

One checks that  $f$  defines a bijection  $[0,1) \rightarrow (0,1)$ .

---

1.5.9 (a) Show that  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{2}$ , and  $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}$  are algebraic.

Soln: Let  $f_{\sqrt{2}}(x) := x^2 - 2$ . Since  $f_{\sqrt{2}}(x)$  is a polynomial with integer coefficients and  $f_{\sqrt{2}}(\sqrt{2}) = 0$ ,

We see that  $\sqrt{2}$  is algebraic.

(5)

Similarly, put  $f_{\sqrt[3]{2}}(x) := x^3 - 2$ , which also has integer coefficients and satisfies  $f_{\sqrt[3]{2}}(\sqrt[3]{2}) = 0$ .

Thus,  $\sqrt[3]{2}$  is also algebraic.

To find a minimal polynomial for  $\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2}$ , let

$$\alpha := \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2}. \quad \text{Then} \quad \alpha^2 = 3 + 2\sqrt{6} + 2 \\ = 5 + 2\sqrt{6},$$

$$\text{So} \quad \alpha^2 - 5 = 2\sqrt{6}.$$

$$\therefore (\alpha^2 - 5)^2 = 24, \quad \text{so} \quad (\alpha^2 - 5)^2 - 24 = 0$$

$$\alpha^4 - 10\alpha^2 + 25 - 24 = 0$$

$$\text{So we set} \quad f_{\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{2}}(x) := x^4 - 10x^2 + 1.$$

$$\text{We've seen that} \quad f_{\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{2}}(\sqrt{3}+\sqrt{2}) = 0, \quad \text{so}$$

$\sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2}$  is algebraic.

[In general, the sum and product of any two algebraic numbers is algebraic ...]

(b) Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and let  $A_n$  be the algebraic numbers obtained as roots of polynomials with integer coefficients that have degree  $n$ . Using the fact that every polynomial has a finite number of roots, show that  $A_n$  is countable. (6)

Soln: As proved in class, if a set  $B$  is countable, then  $\underbrace{B \times B \times B \times \dots \times B}_{n \text{ times } (n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ fixed})}$  is also countable.

In particular,  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1} = \underbrace{\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}}_{n+1 \text{ times}}$  is countable.

But the function

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{polynomials } f(x) \text{ with integer} \\ \text{coefficients of degree } n \end{array} \right\} & \xrightarrow{\psi} & \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \\ \uparrow & & \cup \\ \text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{(n)} & & \\ a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 & \mapsto & (a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0) \end{array}$$

is clearly injective.

Since  $\text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{(n)} \sim \psi(\text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{(n)}) \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ ,

we see that  $\text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}^{(n)}$  is countable, being ~~the~~ <sup>a</sup>



Subset of a countable set.

(7)

Finally, for each  $f(x) \in \text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}(n)$ ,  $f$  has at most  $n$  roots, so

$$A_n = \bigcup_{f(x) \in \text{Pol}_{\mathbb{Z}}(n)} \{\text{roots of } f(x)\}$$

is a countable union of finite sets.

By Theorem 1.5.8 (ii) of our textbook,

$A_n$  is then countable, being a countable union of countable sets.

---

(c) Now, argue that the set of all algebraic numbers is countable. What can we conclude about the set of all transcendental numbers?

Soln. Since  $\{\text{algebraic numbers}\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ ,

We see that it is a countable union of countable sets (by part (b)). Again using

Theorem 1.5.8 (ii), we see that

(8)

$\{\text{algebraic numbers}\}$  is countable. ✓

Finally, since

$$\mathbb{R} = \{\text{algebraic numbers}\} \cup \{\text{transcendental numbers}\},$$

it follows that the set of transcendental numbers  
is uncountable (otherwise  $\mathbb{R}$  would be countable).

---

1.6.5

(a) Let  $A = \{a, b, c\}$ . List the eight elements of  $P(A)$ .

Sol'n:  $P(A) = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$ .

(b) If  $A$  is finite with  $n$  elements, show that  $P(A)$  has  $2^n$  elements.

Sol'n: We induct on  $n \geq 0$ .

Base case  $n=0$ . Then  $A = \emptyset$ , and  $P(A) = \{\emptyset\}$ ,



So  $\#P(A) = 1 = 2^0 = 2^{\#A}$  ✓

Now fix  $n \geq 0$  and assume that,  $\forall$  set  $A$

satisfying  $\#A = n$ ,  $\#P(A) = 2^n$ .

Let  $B$  be a set with  $\#B = n+1$  and pick

$x \in B$ , and set  $A := B \setminus \{x\}$ , so  $x \notin A$

and  $\#A = n$ .

We now partition  $P(B)$  into

$P_{\in x}(B)$  and  $P_{\notin x}(B)$ ,

where  $P_{\in x}(B) := \{C \subseteq B : x \in C\}$

and  $P_{\notin x}(B) := \{C \subseteq B : x \notin C\}$

We have  $P(B) = P_{\in x}(B) \sqcup P_{\notin x}(B)$

↑  
(disjoint union)

Note that  $P_{\in x}(B) \sim P(A)$

$C \mapsto C \setminus \{x\}$   ~~$\leftarrow$~~

$D \cup \{x\} \longleftarrow D$

and

$$P_{\notin x}(B) = P(A)$$

(10)

$$\left( \begin{array}{l} \forall C \in P(B), \\ x \notin C \Leftrightarrow C \subseteq A \end{array} \right)$$

$$\text{Thus, } \#P(B) = \#P_{\in x}(B) + \#P_{\notin x}(B)$$

$$= \#P(A) + \#P(A)$$

$$= 2^n + 2^n = 2^{n+1}.$$

This completes the induction step, establishing that

$$\forall \text{ finite set } A, \#P(A) = 2^{\#A}.$$

□

---